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Psychological Androgyny and Marital Adjustment.

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A Dissertation

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in

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by

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ABSTRACT

The relationship between marital adjustment and personality correlates associated with four possible sex role outcomes was investigated. Subjects included 93 couples (52 college student couples and 41 nonstudent couples) who had been married at least two years. Marital adjustment scores on the Dyadic Adjustment Scale were analyzed separately for husbands and wives.

Subjects were divided into one of the following sex role groups based on ratings on the Personal Attributes Questionnaire: High Masculine/High Feminine; High Feminine/Low Masculine; Low Masculine/High Feminine; and Low Feminine/Low Masculine. Marital adjustment of psychologically androgynous individuals was compared to marital adjustment of individuals representing the traditional sex role stereotype, as well as to subjects representing sex role reversed personality types and individuals described as neither very masculine nor very feminine. Psychological androgyny was defined as possession of both a high degree of personality characteristics traditionally considered masculine and a high degree of personality characteristics traditionally considered feminine.

Marital adjustment scores for the four groups were analyzed on the basis of self ratings and also on the basis of the subject's rating of his or her spouse. Results were compared in terms of student versus nonstudent status.

Results indicated that for self ratings, androgynous husbands tended to have higher adjustment scores as compared to counterparts in other sex role groups. For wives, self ratings on the Personal Attributes Questionnaire were not significantly related to marital adjustment except for wives in the Low Masculine/Low Feminine group who had lower adjustment scores than other groups of wives.

For spouse ratings, husbands and wives who perceived spouses as androgynous had significantly higher marriage adjustment than those who perceived spouses as belonging to one of the other three sex role groups. Husbands and wives who rated spouses as Low Masculine/Low Feminine had lower adjustment scores than other subjects.

Rigid adherence to sex role stereotypes is not necessary for marital adjustment although individuals conforming to sex stereotypes generally have highly satisfactory dyadic adjustment. Androgynous individuals demonstrate greatest marital adjustment. Thus, allowing, or reinforcing development of the androgynous sex role may have positive consequences for the institution of marriage. The present study showed that Low Masculine/Low Feminine individuals have considerable difficulty with dyadic adjustment and should be considered poor marriage risks.

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

The present study investigated the relationship between marital adjustment and personality attributes associated with four possible sex role types. Marital adjustment of psychologically androgynous individuals was compared to marital adjustment of individuals representing traditional sex-appropriate personality types, as well as to individuals representing sex role-reversed personality types and individuals described as being neither very masculine nor very feminine. Psychological androgyny was defined as possessing both a high degree of personality characteristics traditionally considered masculine and a high degree of personality characteristics traditionally considered feminine. Marital adjustment for the four personality types was compared on the basis of self-ratings and also on the basis of the subject's rating of his or her spouse.

Development of Psychological Androgyny Research

In traditional American society, men and women have been expected to conform to rather rigid sex role stereotypes. Males have been socialized to be "masculine" which means independent, assertive, and tough, while women have been socialized to be "feminine" understood as sensitive, understanding, and submissive. Neither sex is supposed to be very much like the other. For example, while assertiveness and tough-mindedness are reinforced in males, such qualities have

traditionally been considered "unfeminine" in women. Conversely, while a high degree of sensitivity is considered desirable in women, a high degree of sensitivity and tenderness has been considered "unmanly" in men.

This concept of masculinity and femininity as polar opposites of each other has until recently been accepted not only by society at large, but also by psychologists. Psychological tests reflect this bias; a person scores as either masculine or feminine, but the tests are not constructed in such a way as to allow a person to say he or she is both (Carlson, 1972; Constantinople, 1973; Bem, 1974, 1975). Generally, in both clinical practice and in psychological research, masculinity has been considered the mark of the psychologically healthy male, while femininity has been considered the mark of the psychologically healthy female (Constantinople, 1973).

Recently, however, this polar conceptualization of men and women has been questioned by the women's liberation movement and also by a number of researchers in psychology. It is argued that the traditional system of sex role differentiation has long outlived its usefulness, and that it now serves only to prevent men and women from developing as full human beings (Bem, 1974, 1976; Carlson, 1971, 1972; Gelb, 1972; Rossi, 1972). According to this line of thinking, people should not be socialized to conform to outdated standards of sex-appropriate behavior. Rather, people should be encouraged to be (andro-male gyne-female). The psychologically androgynous person is described as an individual capable of incorporating both masculinity and femininity into his or her personality, depending upon the situational

appropriateness of such behavior (Bem, 1975). Theoretically, psychological freedom from rigid concepts of sex-appropriate behavior will allow a person to engage in the most effective mode of behavior for the moment or situation.

Initially, psychological androgyny was defined as a balance of masculine and feminine (as traditionally defined) characteristics within the personality makeup (Bem, 1974). Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1975) defined psychological androgyny as possessing both a high degree of personality characteristics traditionally considered masculine and a high degree of personality characteristics traditionally considered feminine. This definition of psychological androgyny is generally accepted (Bem, 1976; Heilbrun, 1976) and is used in the present study. The terms "psychological androgyny" and "androgyny" are used interchangeably in this study.

Psychological research does lend support to proponents of androgyny. For example, there is a significant amount of literature which, although not addressing the concept of androgyny directly, suggests that traditional sex-determined role standards are not only non-functional but perhaps dysfunctional. For example, traditional sex-determined role standards appear to have negative consequences for optimal cognitive functioning (Maccoby, 1966); personality development (Slater, 1961); originality in males (Barron, 1957); and problem solving performance (Carey, 1958). Although high masculinity in males has been correlated with better psychological adjustment in adolescence (Mussen, 1961), it has been correlated in adulthood with high anxiety, low self-acceptance, and high neuroticism (Hartford, Willis, and Deabler, 1967).

High femininity in females has consistently been correlated with high anxiety, low self-esteem, and low self-acceptance (Consentino and Heilbrun, 1964; Gall, 1967; Gray, 1957; and Webb, 1963).

Results of studies cited above provide some evidence that rigid sex role stereotypes may have negative consequences for optimal functioning in a number of different behaviors. However, these studies do not provide any direct evidence that psychological androgyny is associated with more effective modes of behavior. These studies were reported in the 1950's and 1960's prior to the recent interest in the concept of psychological androgyny and the subsequent development of psychological tests that specifically measure psychological androgyny.

Bakan (1966) provided a theoretical framework for the concept of androgyny which has been adopted by recent investigators of psychological androgyny. Bakan conceptualized two "fundamental modalities" characteristic, he argued, of all living forms: agency and communion. Bakan's notion of agency and communion are similar to the concepts of masculinity and femininity. Agency manifests itself in self-protection, self-expansion, and self-assertion, while communion manifests itself in contact, in the sense of being one with other organisms. Agency manifests itself in the urge to master, communion in noncontractual cooperation.

Bakan (1966) argued that a fundamental task of the organism is to "mitigate agency with communion." Bakan postulated that it is only through integration of agency and communion that an individual can be a full human being. His position is similar to recent arguments that androgynous individuals are more effective across a variety of behavioral

situations as compared to individuals representing more traditional sex-appropriate personality types (Bem, 1975, 1976). Bem (1976), Block (1973), and Carlson (1971) have equated Bakan's concepts of agency and communion with masculinity and femininity and have used his theory in developing the concept of psychological androgyny.

Recently, psychological androgyny has been directly investigated by a number of researchers. Research has focused on three main areas with the result that: (1) Traditional methods of measuring masculinity and femininity (M-F) have been questioned; (2) New psychological tests have been devised that allow for the assumption that an individual may develop both masculine and feminine attributes; (3) Psychologically androgynous individuals have been compared to individuals representing traditional sex-appropriate personality types, as well as to individuals representing sex role-reversed personality types and individuals described as neither very masculine nor very feminine. Such comparisons of androgynous individuals have involved a variety of behavioral tasks as well as several different psychological measures. The status of these three areas of research on psychological androgyny will be briefly reviewed in the following sections.

The traditional assumption that masculinity and femininity represent opposite ends of a single dimension has been questioned by a number of investigators (Bem, 1974; Block, 1973, Carlson, 1971, 1972; Constantinople, 1973; Heilbrun, 1976; and Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp, 1974).

Constantinople (1973) reviewed major tests of M-F and concluded that the definition of M-F that has been implicitly used by most test

developers has contained the assumption of bipolarity, an assumption that has not been tested for the validity of its application to the M-F construct. According to Constantinople (1973), in M-F test construction the assumption of bipolarity is evident in at least three ways: (1) dependence on biological sex alone as the appropriate criterion for an item's M-F relevance; (2) implication that the opposite of a masculine response is necessarily indicative of femininity, especially in tests where only two options are provided; and (3) use of a single M-F score which is based on the algebraic summation of M and F responses and which places the individual somewhere on a single bipolar dimension.

Constantinople questioned the validity of the assumption that M-F is a single bipolar dimension ranging from extreme masculinity at one end to extreme femininity at the other. She proposed that there may be two separable dimensions of masculinity and femininity which vary independently of each other. Constantinople's theory is supported by several earlier studies which demonstrated the questionable validity of assuming that M-F are opposite ends of a single continuum (Heilbrun, 1968; Jenkins and Vroegh, 1969; Reece, 1964; Rosenberg, Sutton-Smith, and Morgan, 1961; Vincent, 1966; and Vroegh, 1971).

As previously stated, a second area of interest in androgyny research has been development of psychological tests that specifically measure psychological androgyny. The Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI) was the first test devised to provide a measure of psychological androgyny (Bem, 1974).

The BSRI includes both a Masculinity Scale and a Femininity Scale, which are independent of each other, and a Social Desirability

Scale that is neutral with respect to sex. The Social Desirability Scale now serves primarily to provide a neutral context for Masculinity and Femininity Scales, but was used during development of BSRI to insure that the inventory would not simply be tapping a general tendency to endorse socially desirable traits (Bem, 1974).

Items on BSRI were selected by asking 100 judges (male and female college students) to rate 400 personality characteristics in terms of desirability in American society. A personality characteristic qualified as masculine if it was independently judged by both males and females to be significantly more desirable for a man than a woman ($p < .05$). Similarly, a personality characteristic was classified as feminine if independently judged by both males and females to be significantly more desirable for a woman than a man. Of those characteristics that satisfied these criteria, 20 were selected for the Masculinity Scale and 20 were selected for the Femininity Scale. A personality characteristic qualified as neutral with respect to sex, and thus eligible for the Social Desirability Scale, if independently judged by males and females to be no more desirable for one sex than for the other, and if male and female judges did not significantly differ in their overall desirability ratings of that trait. Of those items satisfying these criteria, 10 positive and 10 negative personality characteristics were selected for BSRI.

The BSRI asks a person to indicate on a seven point scale how well each of 60 masculine, feminine, and neutral personality characteristics are applicable. On the basis of his or her responses, each person receives three scores: a Masculinity score, a Femininity score, and an

Androgyny score. In addition, a Social Desirability score can also be computed. Masculinity equals mean self-rating for all endorsed masculine items, and Femininity equals mean self-rating for all endorsed feminine items. Androgyny scores reflect the relative amounts of masculinity and femininity the person includes in his or her self-rating. Specifically, the Androgyny score is defined as Student's t ratio for the difference between a person's masculine and feminine self-endorsement.

Bem (1974) administered the BSRI to a total of 561 male and 356 female college students to provide normative data for the test. In order to estimate internal consistency of the BSRI, coefficient alpha was computed separately for Masculinity, Femininity, and Social Desirability scores of subjects. Results showed all three scores to be reliable (α 's in the 80's). Masculinity and Femininity Scales were independent of each other. The Androgyny t ratio was internally consistent (average $\alpha = .86$), reliable over a four week interval (average $r = .93$) and uncorrelated with tendency to describe oneself in a socially desirable direction (average $r = .06$). Bem (concluded) that BSRI was a satisfactory instrument for measuring androgyny.

Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1975) have questioned Bem's method for determining androgyny. These authors defined androgyny as possession of a high level of both masculine and feminine traits. This definition differs from Bem's original test which defines the androgynous individual as having a balance between masculinity and femininity. Spence and her colleagues were interested in both relative and absolute strength of the two components. Spence and colleagues pointed out that

Bem's Androgyny difference score fails to identify subjects low on both masculinity and femininity. Conceivably, such subjects could be described as androgynous using the Bem system.

Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1974) developed a test of androgyny which is called the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ). The PAQ was derived by the investigators from an extended version of the Sex Role Stereotype Questionnaire of Rosenkrantz et al. (1974). Groups of college students were asked to rate either typical female and typical male on a series of bipolar adjectives or to rate ideal male and ideal female. Fifty-five items for which significant differences in ratings of the typical member of each sex were consistently found in several independent samples of men and women were chosen for the PAQ. These items were divided into three subscales based on ratings of the ideal male and female on the Sex Role Stereotype Questionnaire. For 18 items, mean ratings of both ideal male and ideal female were toward the feminine end of the bipolar scale. These items were classified as female-valued. Twenty-three items were classified as belonging to the male-valued scale, mean ratings of both the ideal male and ideal female being toward the masculine extreme. Thirteen items were classified as sex specific. For these items, departure of means from the scale mid-point differed in direction for the two sexes, ratings of the ideal female being toward the stereotypically feminine pole, and ideal male being toward the masculine pole.

Spence and her colleagues (1975) considered the male-valued and female-valued subscales, which make up the bulk of the PAQ, to reflect separate dimensions of masculinity and femininity which Bem, Block,

Constantinople and others have argued are present in varying degrees in both males and females. This was supported by Spence's analysis of self-ratings of 248 male and 282 female college students. She found that masculinity and femininity, far from being bipolar and negatively correlated, were, if not orthogonal, actually positively related.

In keeping with their own definition of androgyny, Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1975) developed a four point masculinity-femininity-androgyny index. The total, weighted subject population of males and females was split at the median on both male-valued and female-valued scales. The resulting four groups were as follows: Low Masculine/Low Feminine; Low Masculine/High Feminine; High Masculine/Low Feminine; and High Masculine/High Feminine. The index thus differentiates among those possessing few psychological characteristics of either sex (undifferentiated), those having predominantly the characteristics of one sex or the other, and those with a high proportion of characteristics typical of both sexes (androgynous).

A third measure of psychological androgyny has been developed by Heilbrun (1976). His research involved construction of independent masculinity and femininity scales for the Adjective Check List (Gough, 1952). Heilbrun used the fourfold typology described by Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1975).

There are now three tests used to measure androgyny. Bem (1976) recently agreed with Spence that the term androgyny should be reserved only for those individuals scoring high on both femininity and masculinity. Bem re-analyzed her data with low-low scorers separated out and reported that this served to strengthen her findings in laboratory

experiments described in the following section. She has revised instructions for determining androgyny on the BSRI. The BSRI now identified subjects in terms of the fourfold classification used by Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1975). There now is apparent consensus on the appropriate psychological definition of androgyny.

A third major area of interest in research has involved exploring the effectiveness of the androgynous person as compared to a person who is not androgynous. Bem (1975) reported results of two experiments that provided evidence of behavioral adaptability in androgynous individuals and behavioral restriction in individuals who were not androgynous.

In the first experiment, subjects included nine masculine, nine feminine, and nine androgynous individuals of each sex. Subjects were classified on the basis of BSRI scores. This study was designed to evoke a stereotypically masculine behavior (independence). Independence was measured by degree to which subjects would express their own opinion when they knew that other people disagreed. The experiment was manipulated in such a manner that the subject believed his or her opinion was different from all other subjects. As Bem had hypothesized, masculine and androgynous subjects did not differ significantly from one another, and both were significantly more independent than feminine subjects. This results was obtained for both males and females.

The second experiment (Bem, 1975) was designed to evoke a stereotypically feminine behavior (nurturance). Nurturance was determined by subjects' responsiveness to a little kitten in an experimental situation. In this study, feminine and androgynous men did not differ significantly

from one another, and both were significantly more responsive to the kitten than masculine men. Androgynous women, like androgynous men, were quite responsive to the kitten, but feminine women were significantly less responsive, and masculine women fell in between. These results were not consistent with Bem's hypothesis that feminine women would get high scores on this task of nurturance and that masculine women would earn lower scores than either androgynous or feminine women. It seems likely that Bem's experiment did not adequately test stereotypic feminine behavior. Bem (1975, 1976) suggested that feminine women might have been inhibited in this somewhat artificially induced measure of femininity.

Bem (1975) concluded that only androgynous subjects, both male and female, displayed a high level of masculine independence when under pressure to conform, as well as a high level of feminine playfulness or nurturance when given opportunity to interact with a small kitten. On the other hand, nonandrogynous subjects seemed to be low in one or the other of these two behavior with feminine women showing the greatest deficit.

Bem conducted two additional studies (1975, 1976) which were designed to compare androgynous subjects to nonandrogynous counterparts in the realm of expressive (feminine) behavior. Bem described these experiments as designed to be genuine interpersonal situations where subjects' nurturant sympathies would be more likely to be aroused. One experiment involved subjects' reactions to babies. Time sampling procedures were used to measure responsiveness to a baby in terms of such behaviors as talking, cuddling, kissing, and holding. Feminine and

androgynous subjects (both male and female) did not differ significantly from each other, and both were significantly more nurturant toward the baby than masculine subjects.

In the second study (Bem, 1976), two same-sex subjects participated in a study of "acquaintance process" and drew lots so that one would be the "talker" and the other a "listener." In fact, the talker was a confederate who delivered a memorized script of personal problems. Subjects' responsiveness was recorded behind a two-way mirror. As in the baby study previously described, feminine and androgynous subjects did not differ significantly from one another, and both were significantly more nurturant toward the lonely student than masculine subjects. These results were obtained for male and female subjects.

In another study on androgyny, Bem and Lenney (1976) hypothesized that cross-sex behavior is motivationally problematic for sex-typed individuals and that they actively avoid it as a result. Subjects included 24 androgynous, 24 masculine and 24 feminine members of each sex who were selected on basis of responses to the BSRI. Subjects were given 30 pairs of activities and asked to select one from each pair to act out for pay. Some of these pairs pitted masculine activities against feminine ones (oiling a hinge versus preparing a baby bottle) while others pitted feminine against neutral activities and others pitted masculine against neutral activities.

As Bem hypothesized, results indicated that sex-typed individuals were significantly more stereotyped in their choices than androgynous or sex-reversed subjects who did not differ significantly from one another. In other words, masculine men and feminine were significantly more

likely to select their own sex's activities and to reject the other sex's activities, even though it cost them money.

Bem (1976) summarized results of her research program on androgyny. She noted that across all situations involved in various experiments, androgynous individuals fared well. According to Bem, the androgynous person's competence crosses both the instrumental and expressive domain. On the other hand, a sex stereotyped individual is restricted in his or her behavior in either expressive or instrumental behaviors. Bem concluded that sex-typing does function to restrict behavior.

There are several criticisms of Bem's studies. One question is whether masculine individuals would respond in real life to human beings in the same way that they did in the laboratory. Also, Bem's results in the kitten study were somewhat contradictory. This experiment was supposed to elicit stereotypically feminine behavior. Yet, feminine women had significantly lower scores on this task than did other subjects. Results suggest that Bem's experimental tasks may have been inadequate tests of feminine behavior. Despite these criticisms, Bem's research, in general, does provide significant evidence of behavioral flexibility in androgynous individuals and behavioral restriction in sex-typed individuals.

Additional evidence that the androgynous individual is a more effective person comes from the work of Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1975). In this study, the PAQ and the Texas Social Behavior Inventory (TSBI; Helmreich et al., 1974) were administered to 282 females and 248 males. The TSBI is designed to determine individuals' self-confidence

and competence in interpersonal situations and is generally described as a measure of social self-esteem. For both sexes, androgynous subjects were highest in self-esteem, followed by those high in masculinity and low in femininity. Those low in both characteristics were lowest in self-esteem. Differences were highly significant in all cases ($p < .001$).

Further evidence regarding androgynous individuals is reported by Heilbrun (1976). Heilbrun developed independent masculine and feminine scales for the Adjective Check List. He used these two scales to identify four groups of individuals: high masculine/high feminine (androgynous); high masculine/low feminine; low masculine/high feminine; low masculine/low feminine. This fourfold classification using the Adjective Check List (Gough, 1952) parallels the classification used by Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1975) with the PAQ.

Heilbrun (1976) compared the four groups of individuals on a role consistency measure developed by Block (1961). This score when high suggests better adjustment and achievement of "ego identity," when low the score indicates poorer adjustment and "ego diffusion." Androgynous subject scored significantly higher on role consistency scores when compared to combined scores of the remainder of subjects ($p < .001$). The low masculine/low feminine group was substantially lower on role consistency scores when compared to all other subjects combined ($p < .001$).

Heilbrun (1976) also compared incidence of the four sex role outcomes among college students requesting psychological services. He used a comparison group of "better adjusted" subjects who were volunteers from a large subject pool of undergraduates. In general, Heilbrun found

that the better adjusted group contained a higher percentage of androgynous subjects than the client group.

In summary, research with androgynous individuals provides considerable evidence that the androgynous individual is a more effective person. Androgynous individuals tend to have higher self esteem and better adjustment as compared to sex-typed individuals. In laboratory settings, androgynous individuals performed well across a variety of situations, while their sex-typed counterparts demonstrated behavioral restriction in one area or another. Generally, research supports the currently popular argument that androgyny is a more appropriate sex role ideal than traditional sex role stereotypes.

However, further research is needed on androgyny. Although available research does provide evidence of behavioral flexibility and better adjustment among androgynous individuals as compared to individuals with other sex roles, research is limited in scope and somewhat inconclusive. For example, Bem's strong conclusions regarding behavioral flexibility of androgynous individuals are based on laboratory experiments which were supposed to evoke masculine and feminine behavior. Yet, in at least one experiment, i.e., the kitten experiment, validity of her measure was questionable. Also, degree to which the Bem experiments can be generalized is limited. For example, would masculine subjects respond in real life to human beings in the same way they responded in laboratory situations? Were subjects' responses in laboratory experiments a reflection of their typical behavior or a function of the experimental situation? Research is needed which investigates androgynous individuals in a more typical situation than provided for by the Bem

experiments. Also, further research is needed to investigate behavioral effectiveness of androgynous individuals with regard to long term, interpersonal situations.

Psychological Androgyny and Marital Adjustment

Important information about the effectiveness of androgynous individuals may be gained by investigating the relationship between marital adjustment and androgyny. The marital relationship is a particularly appropriate area of study for several reasons. Information can be gained about the androgynous individual's effectiveness in terms of a real life situation over an extended period of time. Information can be gained about how the androgynous individual interacts with another person. Many individuals, including growing numbers of psychologists, are arguing that androgyny is the appropriate ideal for contemporary society. Yet, at the present time, androgyny research is based mainly on self-report alone, or on the results of laboratory experiments which may have limited application to real-life situations. Effectiveness of androgynous individuals should be documented in real-life situations. The marriage relationship is particularly appropriate in this regard. An individual can give his or her opinion about his or her marital adjustment, and can also be rated by an intimate peer, his or her spouse.

Research on androgyny and marriage is important for another reason. Results of androgyny research suggest that adherence to sex role stereotypes has negative consequences. Yet nowhere is the persistence of sex role stereotypes more evident than in the traditional view

of opposite-sex relations, and particularly marriage. Women are socialized to believe that they must be dependent and submissive in order to be attractive to men and to be a good wife, while men are assigned the role of being dominant, unemotional, and tough-minded in male-female relations. How does marital adjustment of the androgynous individual compare to that of the more sex-typed individual? It is important to learn whether sex-appropriate roles are significant for marital adjustment, or if it is actually the androgynous individual who is the more effective, desirable partner.

The relationship of androgyny to marital adjustment has not been experimentally investigated, although several authors have speculated on the consequences of androgyny for marriage (Osofsky and Osofsky, 1972; Rapoport and Rapoport, 1975; and Rossi, 1972). Although research specifically addressing the question of androgyny and marital adjustment has not been reported, there has been considerable research investigating the relationship between marital adjustment and personality attributes associated with traditional sex role stereotypes.

Hicks and Platt (1970) reviewed marital adjustment research of the 1960's. According to these authors, much of this research indicates that role perception and performance along traditional lines is significant for marital adjustment.

Aller (1962), in a questionnaire study of the marital happiness of students, found that too great a capacity for independent thinking or dominance in wives threatened the self-concept of husbands, and marital adjustment was adversely affected. This finding suggests that the androgynous female may have some difficulty in marital adjustment.

Additional support for this position was reported by Cutler and Dyer (1965). The authors found that wives' adherence to a traditional feminine sex role was related to marital adjustment. Other studies have provided partial support for the importance of adherence to traditional sex-appropriate behavior in marital adjustment (Hurvitz, 1960, 1965; Pickford, Signori, and Rempel, 1966; Wesley and Epstein, 1960). However, these studies do not make comparisons of androgynous individuals to sex-typed individuals. Thus, these results are difficult to interpret in terms of recent research demonstrating greater effectiveness and better adjustment in androgynous individuals as compared to sex-typed individuals.

Although some research has suggested the importance of adherence to traditional sex roles, there is also an appreciable amount of research which indicates that psychological androgyny enhances marital adjustment. Luckey (1964a, 1964b) studied the relationship between marital adjustment, as measured by the Locke Marital Adjustment Scale (Locke, 1951) and personality correlates as measured by the Interpersonal Check List (ICL; Leary, 1956). Subjects, 80 married couples, rated both themselves and their spouses on the ICL. She found that subjects who were satisfied with their marriages perceived their spouses differently than those who were dissatisfied. One important way in which these perceptions differed was in intensity of personality characteristics. The person happy with his marriage saw his or her spouse as strong, but not advice-giving or dominating, self-confident without being conceited, firm but tolerant, and able to self-criticize, but not timid or passive. Persons dissatisfied with their mates tended

to see those mates as being either extremely managerial or extremely modest. Luckey (1964b) also found that in happy marriages, the spouse is one who is seen as sometimes independent and capable of leadership and sometimes dependent and easily led.

Luckey's (1964a, 1964b) results emphasized the importance of balance between independence and dependence in an individual who is happily married. These characteristics would be represented by the androgynous individual. Luckey's results indicated that husbands, as well as wives, valued a certain degree of independence and assertiveness in spouses. Moreover, happily married wives, as well as happily married husbands, described their spouses as dependent, obedient, and yielding on occasion. These results indicate that rigid adherence to sex-role stereotypes is not necessary for marital adjustment.

A study by Murstein and Glaudin (1968) provides additional evidence that psychological androgyny enhances marital adjustment. The authors used the MMPI to compare 37 well-adjusted couples to 43 couples receiving counseling for marital problems. One factor associated with poor marriage adjustment was Insensitive-Rigid which was defined by loadings on the L and Mf scales of the MMPI. This factor loaded negatively with marital adjustment for both males and females. The authors concluded that claiming to act always in the right and also rejecting "feminine" attitudes was associated with marital dissatisfaction for both sexes. The individual with narrowly masculine interests has troublesome marital adjustment. This suggests that high masculinity untempered by feminine characteristics is associated with marital dissatisfaction. For women, it seems likely that it is actually rejection

of femininity that is associated with marital adjustment rather than possession of masculine characteristics per se. This argument seems plausible when it is remembered that the MMPI Mf scale implies that masculinity and femininity are opposite ends of a single continuum.

Other research relevant to the question of androgyny and marital adjustment comes from the work of Steinmann and Fox (1974) who conducted an extensive study designed to learn how men and women responded to contemporary changes in sex roles. In one part of the study, over 1000 married men and women were asked to describe their opposite sex ideal. Men, in describing their ideal, pictured a woman who was a balance between self-achieving and family oriented drives. Men did not consider it "unfeminine" for a woman to be assertive, intelligent, energetic, and strong-minded, behaviors formerly considered the province of males. Moreover, men were not interested in a woman who was retiring and submissive, although they did want a woman who would be supportive and sympathetic. The ideal woman, as described by these subjects, appears to have much in common with the androgynous woman. Women described the ideal man as having high masculine traits, but as also possessing many traditionally "feminine" characteristics. Thus, it appears that women are also looking for an ideal who is probably best described as androgynous. Of course, this is an "ideal" that is being imagined. It remains to be seen if a person who actually embodies these characteristics is a more effective marriage partner.

Steinmann and Fox (1974) also found discrepancies in women's perceptions of what men want in woman. Women believed that men want only traditionally feminine characteristics in women. Yet, men actually

emphasized assertion and independence in the ideal women. This misunderstanding about what is admired by the opposite sex is also shown in men's perceptions of what women want in men. Steinmann and Fox's results suggest that both men and women desire androgyny in each other. Yet, both sexes believe that the other sex wants only sex-stereotyped behavior. This discrepancy is noteworthy, particularly since Steinmann and Fox also found that most men and women act in accordance with what they believe the other sex wants rather than in accordance with what the other says he or she wants.

Jenkins and Vroegh (1969), like Steinmann and Fox, also found that the ideal man and the ideal woman were described in a manner that resembles the androgynous individual. Similar findings have also been reported by Reece (1964), McKee and Sheriff (1959), and Elman, Press and Rosenkrantz (1970).

Results of studies cited above provide evidence indicating that chances for marital adjustment would be maximized for the androgynous individual. A combination of high masculinity and high femininity would provide a desirable balance in that negative exaggerations of masculinity and femininity would tend to be cancelled out. However, additional research on personality correlates of marriage adjustment should be considered prior to specification of hypotheses regarding androgyny and marital adjustment.

There is a significant amount of literature reporting husbands' personality correlates (as perceived by self and spouse) having greater importance for marital adjustment (Hurvitz, 1960, 1965; Katz, et al., 1963; Kotlar, 1965; Stuckert, 1963; and Taylor, 1968). Hicks and Platt

(1970) and Barry (1970) both reviewed the literature and concluded that role of the husband is most crucial to marital satisfaction. Further, evidence shows that marital adjustment is most highly correlated with the husband's behavior in the instrumental (masculine) domain (Dean, 1966; Hurvitz, 1960, 1965; Hawkins, 1969; and Pickford, Signori and Rempel, 1966). The importance of the husband's "masculine" role was also found in the work of Blood and Wolfe (1960) who found that wives' marital happiness was highly correlated with husbands' success in the instrumental role. However, this is not to say that expressive (feminine) characteristics in the husband are not also important. Burgess and Wallin (1953), Uhr (1957), Luckey (1964a, 1964b), and Wesley and Epstein (1960) have all documented the importance of husbands' gentleness, sympathy, and understanding for marital adjustment. Also, as Luckey (1964a, 1964b) has pointed out, it is important for the husband to be dependent and yielding on occasion. Barry (1970) interpreted these above research findings to mean that the husband who is highly masculine, but secure in his masculinity, is able to accept his "feminine" strivings, and thus is able to offer his wife support and tenderness which leads to higher marital adjustment and satisfaction.

Summary and Hypotheses

Integration of previous research suggests a hierarchical pattern relating various personality characteristics to greater or lesser marital adjustment. First, it can be hypothesized that the androgynous male would have maximal chances for high marital adjustment. His combination of high masculinity and high femininity allows him to be both

assertive and yielding, both instrumental and expressive, both gentle and firm. The high masculine/low feminine male would be second in order of marital adjustment. Although he does not possess the high expressive behaviors of the androgynous husband, he is likely to fulfill the instrumental role, and a number of studies have shown the importance of this factor in marital adjustment. Chances for marital adjustment are less for the high feminine/low masculine male who is less likely to demonstrate instrumental behaviors associated with marital adjustment. However, the high feminine/low masculine male would conceivably offer considerable support and tenderness to his wife. Thus, his chances of marital adjustment are higher than the low feminine/low masculine male's chances. The chances for marital adjustment would be minimized for the low low male who would seem to have less to offer to the marriage relationship than any of the other possible categories of males.

To summarize, it is suggested that for husbands, higher marital adjustment will be associated with androgyny, with the traditional husband ranking second. The low masculine/high feminine husband will rank third in marital adjustment, while the low masculine/low feminine male should have significantly lower marital adjustment than any of the other three groups.

For women, the pattern of personality correlates associated with marital adjustment emerges somewhat differently. On the one hand, there is research showing that marital adjustment is associated with traditional sex role behavior in the wife. Yet, there is also significant evidence suggesting that androgyny may enhance marital adjustment for

females. Thus, it would seem that chances for marital adjustment would be maximal for either the androgynous (high feminine/high masculine) wife or the wife with a traditional sex role (high feminine/low masculine). Thus, the androgynous wife will have significantly higher marital adjustment than the low feminine/high masculine wife. Likewise, the high feminine/low masculine wife should have greater marital adjustment than the low feminine/high masculine wife. The low feminine/high masculine wife should have higher marital adjustment than the low feminine/low masculine wife, who presumably has serious problems with low self esteem.

Based on the research, hypotheses will be divided into four areas.

A. Husbands Ratings of Self

Hypothesis One. Husbands who rate themselves as High Masculine/High Feminine will have significantly higher marital adjustment scores than husbands who rate themselves as High Masculine/Low Feminine. (Based on Jenkins and Vroegh, 1969; Luckey, 1964a, 1964b; Murstein and Glaudin, 1968; Steinmann and Fox, 1974; as well as Bem, 1975; and Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp, 1975).

Hypothesis Two. Husbands who rate themselves as High Masculine/Low Feminine will have significantly higher marital adjustment scores than husbands who rate themselves as Low Masculine/High Feminine (Hurvitz, 1960, 1965; Pickford, Signori and Rempel, 1966; Blood and Wolfe, 1960).

Hypothesis Three. Husbands who rate themselves as Low Masculine/High Feminine will have significantly higher marital adjustment scores than husbands who rate themselves as Low Masculine/Low Feminine.

(Based on Luckey, 1964a, 1964b; Wesley and Epstein, 1960).

B. Wives Ratings of Self

Hypothesis Four. Wives who rate themselves as High Feminine/High Masculine will have significantly higher marriage adjustment scores than wives who rate themselves as Low Feminine/High Masculine (Jenkins and Vroegh, 1969; Luckey, 1964a, 1964b; Steinmann and Fox; Bem, 1975, 1976; Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp, 1975).

Hypothesis Five. Wives who rate themselves as High Feminine/Low Masculine will have significantly higher marital adjustment scores than wives who rate themselves as Low Feminine/High Masculine. (Based on Aller, 1962; Hurvitz, 1960, 1965; Cutler and Dyer, 1965; Murstein and Glaudin, 1968.)

Hypothesis Six. Wives who rate themselves as Low Feminine/High Masculine will have significantly higher marriage adjustment scores than wives who rate themselves as Low Feminine/Low Masculine.

C. Husbands. Ratings of Spouse

Hypothesis Seven. Husbands who rate their wives as High Feminine/High Masculine will have significantly higher marriage adjustment scores than husbands who rate their wives as Low Feminine/High Masculine. (Based on Jenkins and Vroegh, 1969; Luckey, 1964a, 1964b; Murstein and Glaudin, 1968, Steinmann and Fox, 1974, as well as Bem, 1975; and Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp, 1975.)

Hypothesis Eight. Husbands who rate their wives as High Feminine/Low Masculine will have significantly higher marital adjustment scores than husbands who rate their wives as Low Feminine/High Masculine. Based on Aller, 1962; Murstein and Glaudin, 1968; Cutler and Dyer, 1965.)

Hypothesis Nine. Husbands who rate their wives as Low Feminine/High Masculine will have significantly higher marriage adjustment scores than husbands who rate their wives as Low Feminine/Low Masculine (Luckey, 1964a, 1964b; Heilbrun, 1976; and Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp, 1975).

D. Wives. Ratings of Spouse

Hypothesis Ten. Wives who rate their husbands as High Masculine/High Feminine will have significantly higher marriage adjustment scores than wives who rate their husbands as High Masculine/Low Feminine.

(Based on Jenkins and Vroegh, 1969; Luckey, 1964a, 1964b; Murstein and Glaudin, 1968; Bem, 1975; Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp, 1975.)

Hypothesis Eleven. Wives who rate their husbands as High Masculine/Low Feminine will have significantly higher marital adjustment scores than wives who rate their husbands as Low Masculine/High Feminine (Hurvitz, 1960, 1965; Pickford, Signori, and Rempel, 1966; Blood and Wolfe, 1960).

Hypothesis Twelve. Wives who rate their husbands as Low Masculine/High Feminine will have significantly higher marital adjustment scores than husbands who rate themselves as Low Masculine/Low Feminine.

(Based on Luckey, 1964a, 1964b; Wesley and Epstein, 1960; as well as Heilbrun, 1976; and Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp, 1975.)

METHOD

Subjects

Inclusion in this study was limited to subjects married for at least two years. Only couples with both spouses returning questionnaires were included in the final analysis.

Questionnaires were given to 60 married college students and their spouses. Fifty-two couples or eighty percent of that group returned questionnaires. In addition, questionnaires were given to 60 married nonstudents and their spouses. Forty-one couples or sixty-eight percent of that group returned questionnaires.

Assessment Measures

The Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ; Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp, 1975) was used in this study. The original PAQ consists of 55 items for which sex differences in the ratings of the typical member of each sex were consistently found in several independent samples of men and women. The PAQ includes a Masculine-Valued subscale and a Feminine-Valued subscale based on ratings of the ideal male and ideal female. The Masculine-Valued scale consists of items for which mean ratings of both the ideal male and the ideal female were toward the masculine extreme as defined by the stereotypes. The Feminine-Valued scale consists of items for which the mean ratings of both the ideal male and the ideal female were toward the feminine end as defined by stereotype ratings.

Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1975) reported alpha coefficients of .91 for both men and women on the PAQ (internal consistency). Part-whole correlations were significant for each item and the subscale to which it was assigned. Test retest reliability was .80 and .91 for men and women respectively.

The present study used the Short Version of the PAQ (Appendix B) which correlates satisfactorily with the original version ($r = .91$). Spence (1976) reported median scores for subscales of the Short Version based on scores of over 2000 men and women college students. These medians were used as cutoffs for determining High and Low Masculinity and High and Low Femininity.

The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (Spanier, 1976) was used to measure marital adjustment. The Dyadic Adjustment Scale (DAS) consists of 32 items tapping four factors of marital adjustment: dyadic concensus, dyadic satisfaction, dyadic cohesion, and affectional expression. The initial item pool for this test was developed by compiling all items ever used on previous tests of marital adjustment. Items were administered to 218 married persons and 94 individuals divorced within one previous year. For each of final 32 items selected, the divorced sample differed significantly from the married sample ($p < .001$). Total test scores for married and divorced samples were 114.8 and 70.7 (out of a possible 151 points). These total scores were significantly different at the .001 level. Correlations between Locke Wallace Marital Adjustment Scale (1959), the most frequently used measure, and DAS were .86 for the married sample and .88 for the divorced sample. Both correlations were highly significant ($p < .001$). The DAS may be found in Appendix C.

Procedure

Potential subjects were recruited from several sources. Student subjects were recruited from undergraduate psychology courses at Louisiana State University. Subjects received extra credit for participation. Other subjects were recruited from married student housing. These subjects were recruited on a door to door basis. The nonstudent subjects were Louisiana state civil service employees working at the state capitol.

Subjects were asked to participate in a study about marriage and personal attributes. All subjects were assured that participation was voluntary and that questionnaires would be kept confidential. Questionnaires were coded to insure anonymity.

If subjects were interested in participation and willing to invite spouse participation, they were given two questionnaires, each with its own stamped, addressed envelope. Subjects were asked not to discuss their responses with spouses until after questionnaires were completed.

Each questionnaire included a cover letter explaining purpose of study, general directions for participation, and information about confidentiality and anonymity (Appendix A). Instructions directed subjects to rate themselves on the PAQ and then to rate spouses. Subjects also completed a Biographical Information Sheet (Appendix D) and the DAS.

Experimental Design

Four analyses were run with groups within each analysis formed on the basis of Masculinity and Femininity scores on the Short Version of the PAQ. The first analysis involved dividing husbands into four

groups based on the way they rated themselves on the PAQ. In the second analysis, wives were divided into four groups based on the way they rated themselves on the PAQ. A third analysis involved dividing husbands into four groups based on their perception of their spouse. The fourth analysis involved dividing wives into four groups based on the way they perceived their spouses. These four analyses involved combined student and nonstudent data. In addition, student and nonstudent groups were analyzed separately in the same manner. The dependent variable for each of these analyses was respective score on the DAS. A regression adjustment was used to correct for unequal group frequencies. The .05 and .01 levels of significance were used. When analysis of variance yielded significant results, individual orthogonal comparisons were used to test specific hypotheses.

Correlation coefficients were computed for demographic variables and adjustment scores. Means, frequencies, and percentage data were obtained for demographic variables.

RESULTS

First, overall results combining student and nonstudent data will be presented.

Husbands Ratings of Self

Table I presents marital adjustment score means and analysis of variance summary for husbands divided into four groups based on self rating on PAQ. There was a significant difference in means among the four sex role groups ($p < .01$). The trend of the means was in the general direction hypothesized. The following orthogonal comparisons were performed to test hypotheses: androgynous subjects and sex role stereotype subjects were compared to sex role reversed subjects and Low Masculine/Low Feminine subjects; androgynous subjects were compared to sex role stereotype subjects; and sex role reversed subjects were compared to Low Masculine/Low Feminine subjects.

The androgynous subjects and sex role stereotype subjects combined had significantly higher means as compared to sex role reversed subjects and Low Masculine/Low Feminine subjects ($p < .01$). There was no significant difference between androgynous subjects and sex role stereotype subjects (obtained $F = 3.79$, expected F at the .05 level of significance with 1 and 89 degrees of freedom = 3.96). There was no significant difference between sex role reversed subjects and Low Masculine/Low Feminine subjects (obtained $F = 3.11$, expected $F = 3.96$).

TABLE I
MARITAL ADJUSTMENT SCORE MEANS AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
SUMMARY FOR HUSBANDS DIVIDED INTO FOUR GROUPS
BASED ON PAQ SELF RATINGS

| <u>Group</u> | <u>N</u> | <u>Mean</u> |
|--|----------|-------------|
| High Masculine/High Feminine (Androgynous) | 36 | 116.8 |
| High Masculine/Low Feminine (Sex Role Stereotype) | 35 | 109.3 |
| Low Masculine/High Feminine | 9 | 108.7 |
| Low Masculine/Low Feminine | 13 | 96.1 |

| <u>Source</u> | <u>df</u> | <u>SS</u> | <u>MS</u> | <u>F</u> |
|---------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|
| Group | 3 | 4183.08 | 1394.36 | 5.29** |
| Error | 89 | 23452.87 | 263.52 | |
| Total | 92 | 27635.95 | | |

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Wives Ratings of Self

Table II shows marital adjustment score means and analysis of variance summary for wives divided into four groups based on PAQ self ratings. The trend of mean scores for the four sex role groups was somewhat different than expected. Androgynous subjects had somewhat lower adjustment scores than sex role stereotype wives or the sex role reversed wives. There was a significant difference among the four sex role groups on marital adjustment scores ($p < .05$). Two orthogonal comparisons were performed to test hypotheses. Androgynous subjects and sex role stereotype subjects combined were compared to sex role reversed subjects and Low Masculine/Low Feminine subjects. Sex role reversed subjects were compared to Low Masculine/Low Feminine subjects.

There was no significant difference between the androgynous subjects and sex role subjects as compared to sex role reversed subjects and Low Masculine/Low Feminine subjects (obtained $F = 2.86$, expected F at the .05 level of significance with 1 and 89 degrees of freedom = 3.96). Sex role reversed subjects had significantly higher adjustment means as compared to Low Masculine/Low Feminine subjects ($p < .05$).

Husbands Rating of Spouse

Table III presents marital adjustment means and analysis of variance summary for husbands divided into groups based on the husbands' ratings of their spouse on PAQ. The pattern of adjustment means for the four sex role groups was consistent with hypotheses. There was a significant difference among groups. Two orthogonal comparisons were performed to test hypotheses. Husbands perceiving wives as androgynous and

TABLE II
 MARITAL ADJUSTMENT SCORE MEANS AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
 SUMMARY FOR WIVES DIVIDED INTO FOUR GROUPS
 BASED ON PAQ SELF RATINGS

| <u>Group</u> | <u>N</u> | <u>Mean</u> |
|--|----------|-------------|
| High Masculine/High Feminine (Androgynous) | 31 | 110.8 |
| High Feminine/Low Masculine (Sex Role Stereotype) | 29 | 117.4 |
| Low Feminine/High Masculine | 12 | 115.6 |
| Low Feminine/Low Masculine | 21 | 102.3 |

| <u>Source</u> | <u>df</u> | <u>SS</u> | <u>MS</u> | <u>F</u> |
|---------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|
| Group | 3 | 3019.97 | 1006.6 | 3.01* |
| Error | 89 | 29788.82 | 334.71 | |
| Total | 92 | 32808.79 | | |

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

TABLE III
MARITAL ADJUSTMENT SCORE MEANS AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
SUMMARY FOR HUSBANDS DIVIDED INTO FOUR GROUPS BASED
ON HUSBAND RATING HIS WIFE ON PAQ

| <u>Group</u> | <u>N</u> | <u>Mean</u> |
|--|----------|-------------|
| High Masculine/High Feminine (Androgynous) | 25 | 117.4 |
| High Feminine/Low Masculine (Sex Role Stereotype) | 35 | 112.2 |
| Low Feminine/High Masculine | 13 | 104.9 |
| Low Feminine/Low Masculine | 20 | 101.6 |

| <u>Source</u> | <u>df</u> | <u>SS</u> | <u>MS</u> | <u>F</u> |
|---------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|
| Group | 3 | 3280.06 | 1095.35 | 4.01* |
| Error | 89 | 24355.89 | 273.66 | |
| Total | 92 | 27635.95 | | |

* $p < .05$
 ** $p < .01$

husbands perceiving wives as sex role stereotype were compared to husbands perceiving wives as sex role reversed and husbands perceiving wives as Low Masculine/Low Feminine. Husbands perceiving wives as sex role reversed were compared to husbands perceiving wives as Low/Masculine/Low Feminine.

Husbands perceiving spouses as androgynous and husbands perceiving wives as sex role stereotype had significantly greater adjustment means as compared to husbands perceiving wives as sex role reversed and husbands who rated spouses as Low Masculine/Low Feminine ($p < .01$). The adjustment scores of husbands perceiving wives as sex role reversed were not significantly different when compared to husbands perceiving wives as Low Masculine/Low Feminine ($F < 1$).

Wives Ratings of Spouse

Table IV presents marital adjustment score means and analysis of variance summary for wives divided into groups based on wives' ratings of their husbands. The pattern of means was somewhat different than expected by hypotheses. Wives who rated husbands as conforming to the sex role stereotype did not have higher scores than wives rating spouses as Low Masculine/High Feminine. There was a significant difference among the four sex role groups ($p < .01$). The following orthogonal comparisons were performed to test hypotheses: Wives perceiving husbands as androgynous and wives perceiving husbands as sex role stereotype were compared to wives perceiving husbands as sex role reversed and wives perceiving husbands as Low Masculine/Low Feminine; Wives perceiving husbands as androgynous were compared to wives

TABLE IV
 MARITAL ADJUSTMENT SCORE MEANS AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
 SUMMARY FOR WIVES DIVIDED INTO FOUR GROUPS BASED
 ON WIFE RATING HER HUSBAND ON PAQ

| <u>Group</u> | <u>N</u> | <u>Mean</u> |
|--|----------|-------------|
| High Masculine/High Feminine (Androgynous) | 41 | 120.5 |
| High Masculine/Low Feminine (Sex Role Stereotype) | 30 | 107.7 |
| Low Masculine/High Feminine | 11 | 108.2 |
| Low Masculine/Low Feminine | 11 | 92.0 |

| <u>Source</u> | <u>df</u> | <u>SS</u> | <u>MS</u> | <u>F</u> |
|---------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|
| Group | 3 | 8051.55 | 26835.85 | 9.65** |
| Error | 89 | 24757.25 | 278.17 | |
| Total | 92 | 32808.79 | | |

* $p < .05$
 ** $p < .01$

perceiving husbands as sex role stereotype; and wives perceiving husbands as sex role reversed were compared to wives perceiving husbands as Low Masculine/Low Feminine.

Wives perceiving husbands as androgynous and wives perceiving husbands as sex role stereotype had significantly greater means as compared to wives perceiving husbands as sex role reversed and wives perceiving husbands as Low Masculine/Low Feminine ($p < .001$). Wives perceiving husbands as androgynous had significantly greater adjustment means as compared to wives perceiving husbands as sex role stereotype ($p .01$). Wives perceiving husbands as sex role reversed had significantly greater adjustment means as compared to wives perceiving husbands as Low Masculine/Low Feminine ($p < .05$).

In addition to considering overall data which combined student and nonstudent groups, results were also separately analyzed for student versus nonstudent status.

Student Husbands Ratings of Self

Table V presents adjustment score means and analysis of variance summary for student husbands based on self rating on PAQ. There was a significant difference between sex role groups ($p < .05$). The following hypotheses were performed to test hypotheses: Androgynous husbands and sex role stereotype husbands were compared to sex role reversed husbands and Low Masculine/Low Feminine husbands; androgynous husbands were compared to sex role stereotype husbands; and sex role reversed husbands were compared to Low Masculine/Low Feminine husbands.

There was no significant difference between means for androgynous husbands and sex role stereotype husbands combined when compared

TABLE V
 MARTIAL ADJUSTMENT SCORE MEANS AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
 SUMMARY FOR STUDENT HUSBANDS DIVIDED INTO FOUR GROUPS
 BASED ON PAQ SELF RATINGS

| <u>Group</u> | <u>N</u> | <u>Mean</u> |
|--|----------|-------------|
| High Masculine/High Feminine (Androgynous) | 15 | 118.9 |
| High Masculine/Low Feminine (Sex Role Stereotype) | 22 | 105.5 |
| Low Masculine/High Feminine | 8 | 109.8 |
| Low Masculine/Low Feminine | 7 | 109.7 |

| <u>Source</u> | <u>df</u> | <u>SS</u> | <u>MS</u> | <u>F</u> |
|---------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|
| Group | 3 | 1596.82 | 532.27 | 2.87* |
| Error | 48 | 8899.49 | 185.41 | |
| Total | 51 | 10496.31 | | |

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

to sex role reversed husbands and Low Masculine/Low Feminine husbands (F). Androgynous husbands had significantly greater adjustment means as compared to sex role stereotype husbands ($p < .01$). There was no significant difference between sex role reversed husbands as compared to Low Masculine/Low Feminine ($F < 1$).

Nonstudent Husbands Ratings of Self

Table VI shows mean adjustment scores and analysis of variance summary for nonstudent husbands divided into four groups based on PAQ self ratings. Analysis of variance yielded significant differences between sex role groups ($p < .01$). Orthogonal comparison between androgynous husbands and sex role stereotype husbands was not performed as means for the two groups were within a few tenths of a point of each other. Other comparisons were not performed as there were too few subjects in the sex role reversed group to make comparisons.

Student Wives Ratings of Self

Table VII presents marriage adjustment means and analysis of variance summary for student wives divided into four groups based on PAQ self ratings. Results were significant at the .05 level. Two orthogonal comparisons were performed to test hypotheses. Androgynous wives and sex role stereotype wives were compared to sex role reversed wives and Low Masculine/Low Feminine wives, and sex role reversed wives were compared to Low Masculine/Low Feminine wives.

There was no significant difference between androgynous wives and sex role stereotype wives combined when compared to sex role reversed wives and Low Masculine/Low Feminine wives combined (obtained $F = 3.46$,

TABLE VI
 MARITAL ADJUSTMENT SCORE MEANS AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
 SUMMARY FOR NONSTUDENT HUSBANDS DIVIDED INTO FOUR
 GROUPS BASED ON PAQ SELF RATINGS

| <u>Group</u> | <u>N</u> | <u>Mean</u> |
|--|----------|-------------|
| High Masculine/High Feminine (Androgynous) | 21 | 115.3 |
| High Masculine/Low Feminine (Sex Role Stereotype) | 13 | 115.6 |
| Low Masculine/High Feminine | -- | --- |
| Low Masculine/Low Feminine | 6 | 80.3 |

| <u>Source</u> | <u>df</u> | <u>SS</u> | <u>MS</u> | <u>F</u> |
|---------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|
| Group | 2 | 6297.63 | 3148.82 | 10.88** |
| Error | 37 | 10708.77 | 289.46 | |
| Total | 39 | 17006.4 | | |

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

TABLE VII
 MARITAL ADJUSTMENT SCORE MEANS AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
 SUMMARY FOR STUDENT WIVES DIVIDED INTO FOUR GROUPS
 BASED ON PAQ SELF RATINGS

| <u>Group</u> | <u>N</u> | <u>Mean</u> |
|--|----------|-------------|
| High Masculine/High Feminine (Androgynous) | 15 | 118.0 |
| High Feminine/Low Masculine (Sex Role Stereotype) | 20 | 114.6 |
| Low Feminine/High Masculine | 6 | 118.0 |
| Low Masculine/Low Feminine | 11 | 102.5 |

| <u>Source</u> | <u>df</u> | <u>SS</u> | <u>MS</u> | <u>F</u> |
|---------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|
| Group | 3 | 1758.17 | 586.06 | 2.83* |
| Error | 48 | 9953.28 | 207.36 | |
| Total | 51 | 11711.44 | | |

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

expected F at the .05 level of significance with 1 and 48 degrees of freedom = 4.04). Sex role reversed wives had significantly greater marriage adjustment means when compared to Low Masculine/Low Feminine wives ($p < .05$).

Nonstudent Wives Ratings of Self

Table VIII presents marital adjustment score means for non-student wives grouped on basis of PAQ self ratings. The pattern of means differed from that suggested by hypotheses in that androgynous subjects had lower mean scores than subjects in either the sex role stereotype group or the sex role reversed group. There was no significant difference among adjustment means for the four groups ($F = 2.15$, expected F at the .05 level with 3 and 37 degrees of freedom = 2.84).

Student Husbands Ratings of Spouse

Table IX presents mean adjustment scores and analysis of variance summary for student husbands divided into four groups based on perception of their wives on PAQ. Means for the four groups were in the pattern expected by hypotheses, and results were significant at the .05 level. Two comparisons were performed to test hypotheses. Husbands perceiving wives as androgynous and husbands perceiving wives as sex role stereotype were combined and compared to husbands perceiving wives as sex role reversed combined with husbands perceiving wives as Low Masculine/Low Feminine. Husbands perceiving wives as sex role reversed were compared to husbands perceiving wives as Low Masculine/Low Feminine.

Husbands perceiving wives as androgynous and husbands perceiving wives as sex role stereotype had significantly greater adjustment as

TABLE VIII

MARITAL ADJUSTMENT SCORE MEANS AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
 SUMMARY FOR NONSTUDENT WIVES DIVIDED INTO FOUR GROUPS
 BASED ON PAQ SELF RATINGS

| <u>Group</u> | <u>N</u> | <u>Mean</u> |
|--|----------|-------------|
| High Masculine/High Feminine (Androgynous) | 16 | 104.1 |
| High Feminine/Low Masculine (Sex Role Stereotype) | 6 | 124.2 |
| Low Feminine/High Masculine | 9 | 113.3 |
| Low Masculine/Low Feminine | 10 | 102.0 |

| <u>Source</u> | <u>df</u> | <u>SS</u> | <u>MS</u> | <u>F</u> |
|---------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| Group | 3 | 3073.39 | 1024.46 | 2.15 n.s. |
| Error | 37 | 17659.83 | 477.29 | |
| Total | 40 | 20733.22 | | |

TABLE IX
MARITAL ADJUSTMENT SCORE MEANS AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
SUMMARY FOR STUDENT HUSBANDS DIVIDED INTO FOUR
GROUPS BASED ON HUSBAND RATING HIS WIFE ON PAQ

| <u>Group</u> | <u>N</u> | <u>Mean</u> |
|--|----------|-------------|
| High Masculine/High Feminine (Androgynous) | 11 | 118.4 |
| High Feminine/Low Masculine (Sex Role Stereotype) | 21 | 112.0 |
| Low Feminine/High Masculine | 6 | 110.0 |
| Low Feminine/Low Masculine | 14 | 102.2 |

| <u>Source</u> | <u>df</u> | <u>SS</u> | <u>MS</u> | <u>F</u> |
|---------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|
| Group | 3 | 1712.74 | 570.91 | 3.12* |
| Error | 48 | 8783.57 | 182.99 | |
| Total | 51 | 10496.44 | | |

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

compared to husbands perceiving wives as sex role reversed and husbands perceiving wives as Low Masculine/Low Feminine ($p < .05$). There was no significant difference between husbands perceiving wives as sex role reversed as compared to husbands perceiving wives as Low Masculine/Low Feminine (obtained $F = 1.39$, expected F at the .05 level with 1, 48 degrees of freedom = 4.08).

Nonstudent Husbands Ratings of Spouse

Table X presents mean adjustment scores and analysis of variance summary for husbands divided into four groups based on their ratings of their wives on the PAQ. Although the pattern of means was generally consistent with hypotheses, there was no significant difference among groups (obtained $F = 1.52$, expected F for significance at the .05 level with 3 and 37 degrees of freedom = 2.86).

Student Wives Ratings of Spouse

Table XI presents adjustment score means and analysis of variance summary for wives divided into four groups based on wives rating husbands. Results were significant at the .05 level. The following orthogonal comparisons were performed to test hypotheses: wives perceiving husbands as androgynous and wives perceiving husbands as sex role stereotype were compared to wives perceiving husbands as sex role reversed and wives perceiving husbands as Low Masculine/Low Feminine; wives perceiving husbands as androgynous were compared to wives perceiving husbands as sex role stereotype; and wives perceiving husbands as sex role reversed were compared to wives perceiving husbands as Low Masculine/Low Feminine.

TABLE X

MARITAL ADJUSTMENT SCORE MEANS AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE SUMMARY
FOR STUDENT WIVES DIVIDED INTO FOUR GROUPS BASED
ON WIFE RATING HER HUSBAND ON PAQ

| <u>Group</u> | <u>N</u> | <u>Mean</u> |
|--|----------|-------------|
| High Masculine/High Feminine (Androgynous) | 14 | 116.6 |
| High Feminine/Low Masculine (Sex Role Stereotype) | 14 | 112.1 |
| Low Feminine/High Masculine | 7 | 100.6 |
| Low Feminine/Low Masculine | 6 | 100.2 |

| <u>Source</u> | <u>df</u> | <u>SS</u> | <u>MS</u> | <u>F</u> |
|---------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|-----------|
| Group | 3 | 1880.09 | 626.70 | 1.52 n.s. |
| Error | 37 | 15248.69 | 412.13 | |
| Total | 40 | 17128.78 | | |

* $p < .05$
** $p < .01$

TABLE XI

MARITAL ADJUSTMENT SCORE MEANS AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
 SUMMARY FOR STUDENT WIVES DIVIDED INTO FOUR GROUPS
 BASED ON WIFE RATING HER HUSBAND ON PAQ

| <u>Group</u> | <u>N</u> | <u>Mean</u> |
|--|----------|-------------|
| High Masculine/High Feminine (Androgynous) | 23 | 120.13 |
| High Masculine/Low Feminine (Sex Role Stereotype) | 19 | 108.11 |
| Low Masculine/High Feminine | 7 | 112.14 |
| Low Feminine/Low Masculine | 3 | 97.33 |

| <u>Source</u> | <u>df</u> | <u>SS</u> | <u>MS</u> | <u>F</u> |
|---------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|
| Group | 3 | 2370.36 | 790.12 | 4.06* |
| Error | 48 | 9341.08 | 194.61 | |
| Total | 51 | 11711.44 | | |

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

There was no significant difference between means of wives perceiving husbands as androgynous and wives perceiving husbands as sex role stereotype as compared to wives perceiving husbands as sex role reversed and wives perceiving husbands as Low Masculine/Low Feminine (obtained $F = 2.02$, expected F for .05 level of significance with 1 and 48 degrees of freedom = 4.04). Wives perceiving husbands as androgynous had significantly greater adjustment means when compared to wives perceiving husbands as sex role stereotype ($p < .01$). There was no significant difference between wives perceiving husbands as sex role reversed and wives perceiving husbands as Low Masculine/Low Feminine (obtained $F = 2.19$, expected F at .05 level of significance with 1 and 48 degrees of freedom = 4.04).

Nonstudent Wives Ratings of Spouse

Table XII presents adjustment means and analysis of variance summary for nonstudent wives divided into four groups based on wife rating her husband. There was a significant difference among groups ($p < .001$). The following orthogonal comparisons were performed to test hypotheses: wives perceiving husbands as androgynous and wives perceiving husbands as sex role stereotype were combined and compared to wives perceiving husbands as sex role reversed and wives perceiving husbands as Low Masculine/Low Feminine; wives perceiving husbands as androgynous were compared to wives perceiving husbands as sex role stereotype; and wives perceiving husbands as sex role reversed were compared to wives perceiving husbands as Low Masculine/Low Feminine.

Wives perceiving husbands as androgynous and wives perceiving

TABLE XII

MARITAL ADJUSTMENT SCORE MEANS AND ANALYSIS OF VARIANCE
 SUMMARY FOR NONSTUDENT WIVES DIVIDED INTO FOUR GROUPS
 BASED ON WIFE RATING HER HUSBAND ON PAQ

| <u>Group</u> | <u>N</u> | <u>Mean</u> |
|--|----------|-------------|
| High Masculine/High Feminine (Androgynous) | 18 | 121.0 |
| High Masculine/Low Feminine (Sex Role Stereotype) | 11 | 107.0 |
| Low Masculine/High Feminine | 4 | 101.0 |
| Low Feminine/Low Masculine | 8 | 90.0 |

| <u>Source</u> | <u>df</u> | <u>SS</u> | <u>MS</u> | <u>F</u> |
|---------------|-----------|-----------|-----------|----------|
| Group | 3 | 5748.29 | 1916.1 | 4.73** |
| Error | 37 | 14984.93 | 405.0 | |
| Total | 40 | 20733.21 | | |

* $p < .05$
 ** $p < .01$

husbands as sex role stereotype had significantly greater adjustment means as compared to wives perceiving husbands as sex role reversed and wives perceiving husbands as Low Masculine/Low Feminine ($p < .01$). There was no significant difference between wives perceiving husbands as androgynous as compared to wives perceiving husbands as sex role stereotype (Obtained $F = 3.18$, expected $F = 4.08$ at the .05 level of significance with 1 and 37 degrees of freedom). There was no significant difference in means when wives perceiving husbands as sex role reversed were compared to wives perceiving husbands as Low Masculine/Low Feminine ($F < 1$).

Correlations

For students, there was a significant positive correlation of .61 between husbands' adjustment scores and wives' adjustment scores ($p .0001$). For nonstudents, there was a significant positive correlation ($r = .58$) between husbands' adjustment scores and wives' adjustment scores ($p < .0001$). Other correlations of possible interest were not significant.

Appendix E and Appendix F present percentage data based on subjects' responses to the Biographical Information Sheet.

DISCUSSION

Results for self ratings indicate that, overall, husbands who are either androgynous or sex role stereotypes have higher marital adjustment than sex role reversed husbands or Low Masculine/Low Feminine husbands. This finding supports earlier research which emphasized importance of husband's masculine role for marital happiness (Blood and Wolfe, 1960; Hurvitz, 1960, 1965; Pickford, Signori, and Rempel, 1966).

There was also an overall tendency for androgynous husbands to have highest adjustment scores when compared to other sex role groups, including the sex role stereotype group. Although this difference did not reach statistical significance in combined data for husbands, there was a significant difference when student androgynous husbands were compared to counterparts in sex role stereotype group. In the case of nonstudent husbands, androgynous husbands tended to have relatively high adjustment scores that were similar to adjustment scores of sex role stereotype husbands.

These results demonstrate that androgynous husbands have satisfactory marital adjustment. The behavioral effectiveness of androgynous males does not include effectiveness in dyadic adjustment. In the case of student husbands, androgynous males report significantly greater adjustment than sex role stereotype husbands. In the case of non-students, androgynous husbands report their marital adjustment as similar to that of husbands who described themselves as conforming to the sex role stereotype.

Comparison of student husbands versus nonstudent husbands on self rating means suggests that perception of self as fulfilling masculine role is of lesser importance for students as compared to nonstudents. For example, student husbands in the sex role stereotype group actually had somewhat lower scores than either the sex role reversed group or the Low Masculine/Low Feminine group. This finding suggests a tendency for high masculinity unaccompanied by high femininity to have negative consequences for marital adjustment of student husbands. On the other hand, sex role stereotype husbands in the nonstudent group actually had slightly higher adjustment means than androgynous counterparts and considerably higher adjustment means as compared to Low Masculine/Low Feminine nonstudent husbands. Furthermore, there was only one nonstudent husband who endorsed the sex role reversed category as self descriptive, although there were several student husbands endorsing this category. It is likely that expectations and marital demands are somewhat different for males who are college students as compared to their counterparts outside the academic setting.

Results for husbands describing themselves as Low Masculine/Low Feminine are partially consistent with previous research findings about individuals in this category. Overall, such subjects have lowest adjustment scores among various subgroups of husbands. This finding is consistent with Spence et al. (1975) who reported low social competency in such individuals. However, present results are contradictory when analyzed in terms of student versus nonstudent status. Among nonstudent husbands, Low Masculine/Low Feminine subjects have lowest scores of any

subgroup within the study. However, these low scores were not found among student husbands who ranked themselves as Low Masculine/Low Feminine. Student subjects in the Low Low group had adjustment scores similar to Low Masculine/High Feminine student husbands.

The overall pattern of adjustment means for wives based on self ratings was only partially consistent with that suggested by hypotheses. Contrary to expectations, androgynous wives had lower scores than wives in the sex role reversed group. They also had lower scores than their sex role stereotype counterparts. Only one hypothesis was confirmed in relation to wives' adjustment based on self ratings. Overall, sex role reversed wives had significantly greater marriage adjustment scores than Low Masculine/Low Feminine wives. This result was also found when student wives were analyzed separately. (Nonstudent wives in the sex role reversed group and the Low Masculine/Low Feminine group were not compared since analysis of variance of nonstudent wife sex role groups was not significant). This finding is consistent with androgyny research which describes the Low Masculine/Low Feminine woman as low in self-esteem and social competence.

Results for wives suggest that, with the exception of the Low Masculine/Low Feminine subject, various sex role styles are not significantly related to ratings of marital adjustment. This interpretation is consistent with earlier studies that failed to find significant correlation between marital adjustment and personality correlates of wives (Hurvitz, 1960, 1965; Katz, et al., 1963; and Kotlar, 1965). However, these studies did yield significant correlations between marital adjustment and husbands' personality attributes.

Although there was no significant difference among adjustment means of nonstudent wives, several interesting trends emerged. The mean for nonstudent wives perceiving themselves as conforming to the sex role stereotype is noteworthy. These subjects had highest scores of any subjects in the study. This trend suggests that for wives outside of the academic setting, adherence to the traditional sex role is important for greater marital adjustment. On the other hand, nonstudent wives rating themselves as androgynous had relatively lower adjustment scores as compared to other groups of nonstudent wives, and also as compared to other groups of androgynous subjects, i.e., androgynous student wives, androgynous student husbands, and androgynous nonstudent husbands. These findings indicate that the androgynous sex role may present some difficulties for marital adjustment for nonstudent females. Perhaps androgyny in females is less acceptable outside of the academic setting. These suggestions need further investigation.

Results regarding husbands' adjustment in terms of perception of spouse provide support for the theory that both sex role stereotype wives and androgynous wives would have greater marital adjustment as compared to sex role reversed wives and Low Masculine/Low Feminine wives. Adjustment means for husbands perceiving wives as androgynous are particularly noteworthy as they are consistently higher than means for husbands in other sex role groups based on spouse ratings, including husbands perceiving wives as sex role stereotype. These higher means for husbands perceiving wives as androgynous are found overall as well as for student and nonstudents. In this study, it was hypothesized that means for husbands perceiving wives as androgynous and husbands

perceiving wives as sex role stereotype would be similar to each other and higher than husbands perceiving wives as sex role reversed or Low Masculine/Low Feminine. It was not hypothesized that husbands perceiving wives as androgynous would have significantly greater adjustment as compared to husbands perceiving wives as sex role stereotype. Since this was not a pre-test hypothesis, orthogonal comparison of the two groups could not be performed. However, the present results do suggest that husbands perceiving wives as androgynous have greatest marital adjustment as compared to husbands endorsing other categories as descriptive of their spouse. At any rate, results strongly indicate that husbands are quite satisfied with wives perceived as androgynous. These results are noteworthy in view of Steinmann and Fox's (1975) finding that married women think men want only traditional feminine characteristics in women. Present findings support Steinmann and Fox's report that men perceive women with both masculine and feminine characteristics as ideal women.

Results for wives' adjustment scores based on their ratings of their spouse are consistent with earlier research on androgynous individuals compared to other sex role types. Wives who perceived husbands as androgynous had highest adjustment means when compared with wives perceiving husbands as belonging to other sex role groups. Comparison of wives perceiving husbands as androgynous to wives perceiving husbands as sex role stereotype reached statistical significance for combined data and for student data taken separately, although comparison of these two groups did not reach statistical significance in the case of nonstudents taken separately. Nevertheless, results definitely

emphasize the importance of wives' positive perception of husband as fulfilling the instrumental and expressive roles for marital adjustment.

In summary, three important findings are demonstrated by results of the present study. First, androgynous subjects have highly satisfactory marital adjustment. In some cases, androgynous subjects demonstrated significantly greater adjustment as compared to other sex role groups, including sex role stereotype. But at the very least, adjustment means of androgynous subjects were comparable to sex role stereotype subjects, who also tended to have greater marital adjustment. These results were found for both sexes in terms of self ratings and also in terms of spouse ratings. The only exception to this finding occurred in the case of nonstudent androgynous wives who tended to have relatively lower adjustment scores as compared to their counterparts in other sex role groups. Thus, with the exception of nonstudent wives, androgynous subjects demonstrate a high degree of marital adjustment. The behavioral effectiveness of androgynous subjects does include effectiveness in dyadic adjustment. These findings support the argument that the androgynous individual is a more appropriate sex role ideal for contemporary society. These results refute the traditional view that rigid adherence to sex appropriate behavior is necessary for marital adjustment. In fact, the individual who is high in both masculinity and femininity generally develops a greater degree of marital adjustment than the individual conforming to sex role stereotype. These results imply that allowing, or even reinforcing, development of the androgynous sex role will have positive consequences for the institution of marriage.

The second major finding demonstrated by the present study involves sex role stereotype subjects. Although androgynous subjects generally had greatest marital adjustment, the stereotype subjects also evidenced a high degree of marital adjustment. This finding demonstrates that individuals who possess a high degree of characteristics stereotypic for their sex are capable of highly satisfactory marital adjustment. Combining these results with results for androgynous subjects shows that both androgynous individuals and sex role stereotype individuals experience highly satisfactory marriage adjustment.

The third major finding of the present study is the consistently low marital adjustment scores of the subjects in the Low Masculine/Low Feminine group as compared to subjects with other sex role outcomes. With the exception of student husbands, these relatively lower scores were found for both male and female subjects on self ratings and spouse ratings, although results were not statistically significant in all cases. These results demonstrate that individuals who are indeterminate in terms of sex role have difficulty with marital adjustment. Such individuals may be considered poor marriage risks. This information may have important implications for clinicians concerned with predicting marital problems or involved in counseling individuals with existing marital difficulty. Results for Low Masculine/Low Feminine subjects demonstrate the importance of developing either a high degree of masculinity or a high degree of femininity, and preferably both high masculinity and high femininity, for greater marital adjustment.

Several areas of further research are suggested by the present

study. First, it would be interesting to conduct longitudinal studies comparing androgynous subjects with other sex role groups. The present study primarily involved subjects who had been married a few years, fifty percent only two years. It would be important to learn if student marital adjustment changes as subjects enter a working world, begin to have children, and possibly encounter more pressure for well defined roles.

Results of the present study suggested that for nonstudent wives, adherence to the traditional sex role is related to higher marriage adjustment and that androgyny is associated with somewhat lower adjustment. This tentative finding should be further investigated with a greater number of subjects. Such a study might compare nonstudent working wives with wives who are exclusively homemakers.

Other areas of research might involve comparisons of Black to White marriages since there are reportedly significant differences in role expectations in Black marriages as opposed to white marriages (Barry, 1970).

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

COVER LETTER TO POTENTIAL SUBJECTS

TO ALL POTENTIAL VOLUNTEERS

The purpose of this study is to learn more about personal attributes and marriage. Your participation will be greatly appreciated. However, if you do not wish to participate, please feel free to decline.

All individual responses to the questionnaire will be kept strictly confidential. No individual names will be used. As you will notice, your packet of questionnaires is coded with a number. This is the only identifying information that will be used. Your answers will be completely anonymous. Please do not discuss your responses to the questionnaires with your spouse until after you have returned the questionnaires. It is very important that each person answer the questions completely on his or her own.

After you have completed all the questionnaires, please return them to me in the enclosed envelope. Please mail the questionnaires to me as soon as possible.

Thank you very much for your consideration in helping me with this study. If you have any questions, please feel free to call me at the LSU Psychology Dept. at 388-8745. Leave a message with the secretary (including your phone number) and I will be glad to return your call.

Thanks again for your help.

Sincerely,

Ruth Morehouse, M.A.
LSU Psychology Dept.

APPENDIX B
PERSONAL ATTRIBUTES QUESTIONNAIRE

On the following pages are a series of 5-point scales which describe a variety of psychological characteristics. For each one, you are to rate yourself on that characteristic. For example, how artistic are you? On the scale below very artistic is indicated at the far right, and not at all artistic is indicated at the far left.

Not at all artistic A B C D E Very artistic

If you think you are moderately artistic, your answer might be D; if you are very unartistic, you should choose A, etc.

For each scale, select the letter on the scale that best describes you and indicate it on the answer sheet by circling the appropriate letter. In answering this part of the questionnaire please be sure that you are marking on the mimeograph sheets which are marked Self.

**** Please be sure to answer every item. ****

Appendix B (continued)

S E L F

1. Not at all aggressive A B C D E Very aggressive
2. Not at all independent A B C D E Very independent
3. Not at all emotional A B C D E Very emotional
4. Very submissive A B C D E Very dominant
5. Not at all excitable A B C D E Very excitable in
in a major crisis a major crisis
6. Very passive A B C D E Very active
7. Not able to A B C D E Able to devote self
devote self completely to
completely to others
8. Very rough A B C D E Very gentle
9. Not at all A B C D E Very helpful to others
helpful to others
10. Very home oriented A B C D E Very worldly
11. Not at all A B C D E Very competitive
competitive
12. Not at all kind A B C D E Very kind
13. Indifferent of A B C D E Highly needful of
other's approval other's approval
14. Feelings not easily A B C D E Feelings easily
hurt hurt
15. Not at all aware of A B C D E Very aware of
feelings of others feelings of others
16. Can make decisions A B C D E Has difficulty
easily making decisions
17. Gives up very A B C D E Never gives up easily
easily

Appendix B (continued)

S E L F

18. Never cries A B C D E Cries very easily
19. Not at all A B C D E Very self-confident
self-confident
20. Feels inferior A B C D E Feels very superior
21. Not at all A B C D E Very understanding
understanding of others of others
22. Very cold in A B C D E Very warm in relations
relations with with others others
23. Very little A B C D E Very strong need for
need for security security
24. Goes to pieces A B C D E Stands up well under
under pressure pressure

Go on to the next page

Appendix B (continued)

Now that you have finished rating yourself, you may go on to the next part of the questionnaire. This time, rate your spouse on the psychological characteristics. Use the same instructions that were given for rating yourself. For example, how artistic is your spouse? If you think he or she is very artistic, you would choose E, if you think he or she is moderately artistic, you might choose D.

For each scale, circle the letter on the scale that best describes your spouse. Be sure you are marking on the sheet marked Spouse.

Personal Attributes Questionnaire Spouse

1. Not at all aggressive A B C D E Very aggressive
2. Not at all independent A B C D E Very independent
2. Not at all emotional A B C D E Very emotional
4. Very submissive A B C D E Very dominant
5. Not at all excitable A B C D E Very excitable in
in a major crisis a major crisis
6. Very passive A B C D E Very active
7. Not at all able A B C D E Able to devote self
to devote self completely to others
completely to others
8. Very rough A B C D E Very gentle
9. Not at all helpful A B C D E Very helpful to
to others others
10. Very home oriented A B C D E Very worldly
11. Not at all competitive A B C D E Very competitive

Appendix B (continued)

Spouse

12. Not at all kind A B C D E Very kind
13. Indifferent of other's A B C D E Highly needful
approval of other's
approval
14. Feelings not easily A B C D E Feelings easily
hurt hurt
15. Not at all aware of A B C D E Very aware of
feelings of others feelings of
others
16. Can make decisions A B C D E Has difficulty
easily making decisions
17. Gives up very A B C D E Never gives up easily
easily
18. Never cries A B C D E Cries very easily
19. Not at all A B C D E Very self-confident
self-confident
20. Feels inferior A B C D E Feels very superior
21. Not at all under- A B C D E Very understanding
standing of others of others
22. Very cold in relation A B C D E Very warm in
to others relation to others
23. Very little need A B C D E Very strong need for
for security security
24. Goes to pieces A B C D E Stands up well under
under pressure pressure

Go on to the next page

APPENDIX C

DYADIC ADJUSTMENT SCALE

Most persons have disagreements in their relationships. Please indicate below the approximate extent of agreement or disagreement between you and your partner for each item on the following list.

| | <u>Always Agree</u> | <u>Almost Always Agree</u> | <u>Occasionally Disagree</u> | <u>Fre-quently Disagree</u> | <u>Almost Always Disagree</u> | <u>Always Disagree</u> |
|--|---------------------|----------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------------|
| 1. Handling family finances | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 2. Matters of recreation | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 3. Religious matters | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 4. Demonstrations of affection | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 5. Friends | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 6. Sex relations | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 7. Conventionality (correct or proper behavior) | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 8. Philosophy of life | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 9. Ways of dealing with parents or in-laws | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 10. Aims, goals, and things believed important | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 11. Amount of time spent together | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 12. Making major decisions | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 13. Household tasks | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 14. Leisure time interests and activities | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 15. Career decisions | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| | <u>All the time</u> | <u>Most of the time</u> | <u>More often than not</u> | <u>Occasionally</u> | <u>Rarely</u> | <u>Never</u> |
| 16. How often do you discuss or have you considered divorce, separation, or terminating your relationship? | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 17. How often do you or your mate leave the house after a fight? | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 18. In general, how often do you think that things between you and your partner are going well? | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |

Appendix C (continued)

| | <u>All the time</u> | <u>Most of the time</u> | <u>More often than not</u> | <u>Occa- sionally</u> | <u>Rarely</u> | <u>Never</u> |
|--|-----------------------------|---------------------------------|------------------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------|
| 19. Do you confide in your mate? | 5 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |
| 20. Do you ever regret that you married? (or lived together) | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 21. How often do you and your partner quarrel? | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 22. How often do you and your mate "get on each other's nerves?" | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| | | <u>Every Day</u> | <u>Almost Every Day</u> | <u>Occa- sionally</u> | <u>Rarely</u> | <u>Never</u> |
| 23. Do you kiss your mate? | | 4 All of them | 3 Most of them | 2 Some of them | 1 Very few of them | 0 None of them |
| 24. Do you and your mate engage in outside interests together? | | 4 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 0 |

How often would you say the following events occur between you and your mate?

| | <u>Never</u> | <u>Less than once a month</u> | <u>Once or twice a month</u> | <u>Once or twice a week</u> | <u>Once a day</u> | <u>More often</u> |
|--|--------------|---|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 25. Have a stimulating exchange of ideas | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 26. Laugh together | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 27. Calmly discuss something | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |
| 28. Work together on a project | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 |

These are some things about which couples sometimes agree and sometime disagree. Indicate if either item below caused differences of opinions or were problems in your relationship during the past few weeks. (Check yes or no)

| | <u>Yes</u> | <u>No</u> | |
|-----|------------|-----------|--------------------------|
| 29. | <u>0</u> | <u>1</u> | Being too tired for sex. |
| 30. | <u>0</u> | <u>1</u> | Not showing love. |

Appendix C (continued)

31. The dots on the following line represent different degrees of happiness in your relationship. The middle point, "happy," represents the degree of happiness of most relationships. Please circle the dot which best describes the degree of happiness, all things considered, of your relationship.

| | | | | | |
|-----------|---------|----------|-------|-------|-------------------|
| Extremely | Fairly | A Little | Happy | Very | Extremely Perfect |
| Unhappy | Unhappy | Unhappy | | Happy | Happy |

32. Which of the following statements best describes how you feel about the future of your relationship?

- 5 I want desperately for my relationship to succeed, and would go to almost any length to see that it does.
- 4 I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do all I can to see that it does.
- 3 I want very much for my relationship to succeed, and will do my fair share to see that it does.
- 2 It would be nice if my relationship succeeded, but I can't do much more than I am doing now to help it succeed.
- 1 It would be nice if it succeeded, but I refuse to do any more than I am doing now to keep the relationship going.
- 0 My relationship can never succeed, and there is no more that I can do to keep the relationship going.

APPENDIX D

BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION SHEET

Please answer all of the questions below.

1. Age? Age of spouse?
2. Nationality?
3. Religion?
4. How long have you been married to present spouse?
5. Is this your first marriage?
6. Is this your spouse's first marriage?
7. What is your college and classification? If you are not a student, please put type of employment.
8. If you are not presently a student, what is your highest level of education?
9. What is your spouse's college and classification? If your spouse is not a student, please put type of employment.
10. If your spouse is not presently a student, what is his/her highest level of education?
11. How many brothers and sisters do you have?
12. How many brothers and sisters does your spouse have?
13. What is your order in the family (i.e., youngest, only child, middle, oldest)?
14. What is your spouse's order in his/her family?
15. How many children do you have?
16. What is the highest educational level achieved by your father?
By your mother?
17. What is the highest education level achieved by your spouse's father? By your spouse's mother?

APPENDIX E

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF WIVES BASED ON
RESPONSE TO
BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION SHEET

| <u>Age</u> | <u>Percent of Sample Within Category</u> | | |
|-------------|--|-----------------|--------------------|
| | <u>Total Sample</u> | <u>Students</u> | <u>Nonstudents</u> |
| 20-25 years | 58 | 80 | 29 |
| 26-30 years | 29 | 14 | 49 |
| 31-40 years | 9 | 5 | 17 |
| 41 or over | 2 | 0 | 5 |

Mean age of total sample =
25.9 years

| <u>Length of Marriage</u> | <u>Percent of Sample Within Category</u> | | |
|---------------------------|--|-----------------|--------------------|
| | <u>Total Sample</u> | <u>Students</u> | <u>Nonstudents</u> |
| Two years | 50 | 62 | 37 |
| Three to five years | 25 | 18 | 29 |
| Six to ten years | 17 | 16 | 22 |
| Eleven to twenty years | 6 | 4 | 7 |
| Over twenty years | 2 | 0 | 4 |

Mean length of marriage =
4.50 years

| <u>Number of Children</u> | <u>Percent of Sample Within Category</u> | | |
|---------------------------|--|-----------------|--------------------|
| | <u>Total Sample</u> | <u>Students</u> | <u>Nonstudents</u> |
| no children | 50 | 63 | 32 |
| one child | 28 | 21 | 37 |
| two children | 16 | 13 | 19 |
| three or four children | 5 | 2 | 10 |
| five or more children | 1 | 0 | 2 |

| <u>Race</u> | <u>Percent of Sample Within Category</u> | |
|-------------|--|-----------------|
| | <u>Total Sample</u> | <u>Students</u> |
| Black | 5 | |
| White | 95 | |

| <u>Religion</u> | <u>Percent of Sample Within Category</u> | |
|-----------------|--|-----------------|
| | <u>Total Sample</u> | <u>Students</u> |
| Catholic | 47 | |
| Protestant | 41 | |
| Jewish | 2 | |
| No Preference | 10 | |

Appendix E (continued)

| <u>Percent of Sample Within Category</u> | | |
|--|---------------------|---------------|
| <u>Order in Family</u> | <u>Total Sample</u> | |
| | | |
| only child | 5 | |
| youngest child | 19 | |
| middle child | 40 | |
| oldest child | 36 | |
| <u>Parents' Educational Level</u> | <u>Total Sample</u> | |
| | <u>Mother</u> | <u>Father</u> |
| less than high school | 21 | 15 |
| high school | 42 | 29 |
| some college/special training | 21 | 18 |
| college degree or better | 17 | 38 |

APPENDIX F

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF HUSBANDS BASED ON
RESPONSE TO BIOGRAPHICAL INFORMATION SHEET

| <u>Age</u> | <u>Percent of Sample Within Category</u> | | |
|-------------|--|-----------------|--------------------|
| | <u>Total Sample</u> | <u>Students</u> | <u>Nonstudents</u> |
| 20-25 years | 43 | 60 | 22 |
| 26-30 years | 27 | 26 | 49 |
| 31-40 years | 16 | 12 | 24 |
| 41 or over | 2 | 2 | 5 |

Mean age =
27.7 years

| <u>Length of Marriage</u> | <u>Percent of Sample Within Category</u> | | |
|---------------------------|--|-----------------|--------------------|
| | <u>Total Sample</u> | <u>Students</u> | <u>Nonstudents</u> |
| two years | 50 | 61 | 37 |
| three to five years | 26 | 24 | 29 |
| six to ten years | 16 | 10 | 22 |
| eleven to twenty years | 7 | 4 | 7 |
| over twenty years | 1 | 0 | 5 |

Mean length of marriage =
4.49 years

| <u>Number of children</u> | <u>Percent of Sample Within Category</u> | | |
|---------------------------|--|-----------------|--------------------|
| | <u>Total Sample</u> | <u>Students</u> | <u>Nonstudents</u> |
| no children | 49 | 64 | 32 |
| one child | 28 | 21 | 37 |
| two children | 16 | 14 | 19 |
| three or four children | 6 | 2 | 10 |
| five or more children | 1 | | 2 |

| <u>Religion</u> | <u>Percent of Sample Within Category</u> | |
|-----------------|--|-----------------|
| | <u>Total Sample</u> | <u>Students</u> |
| Catholic | 44 | |
| Protestant | 33 | |
| Jewish | 1 | |
| No Preference | 22 | |

Appendix F (continued)

| <u>Percent of Sample Within Category</u> | | |
|--|---------------------|---------------|
| <u>Race</u> | <u>Total Sample</u> | |
| Black | 5 | |
| White | 95 | |
| <u>Order in Family</u> | <u>Total Sample</u> | |
| only child | 8 | |
| youngest child | 17 | |
| middle child | 40 | |
| oldest child | 36 | |
| <u>Parents' Educational Level</u> | <u>Total Sample</u> | |
| | <u>Mother</u> | <u>Father</u> |
| less than high school | 20 | 24 |
| high school | 41 | 35 |
| some college/special training | 21 | 11 |
| college degree or better | 18 | 18 |

VITA

Ruth K. Morehouse was born in Spokane, Washington in 1949 and spent her early years in the Pacific Northwest. Her undergraduate and graduate career was pursued at Louisiana State University from which she received the B.A. degree in 1971 and the M.A. degree in 1975. She has been a doctoral candidate in clinical psychology at Louisiana State University since 1975. Presently, she resides in Dallas, Texas and is completing a clinical psychology internship at the University of Texas Health Science Center at Dallas.

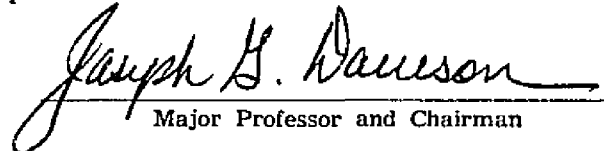
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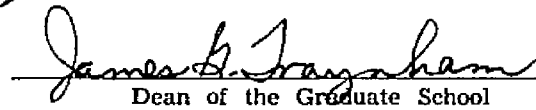
Candidate: Ruth K. Morehouse

Major Field: Psychology

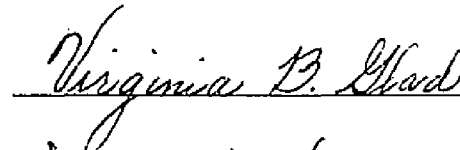
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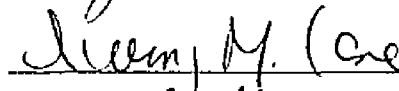
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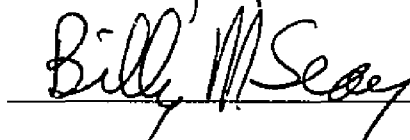

Major Professor and Chairman

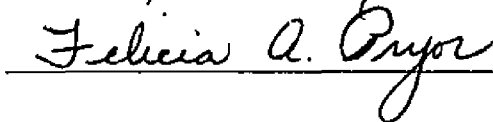

Dean of the Graduate School

EXAMINING COMMITTEE:









Date of Examination:

May 11, 1977